

SELF-DISCLOSURE AND SOCIOMETRIC
CHOICE IN THE ADOLESCENT PERIOD

By

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To my wife, Charlotte, and my three sons, Bill,
Charlie, and Tom, who left me alone when I needed privacy
but were always there when I needed them.

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Introduction

2. INTRODUCTION

The Problem

Both self-disclosure and sociometric status have been studied by previous researchers, and the latter has been looked at from a developmental point of view. It is the purpose of this study to look at self-disclosure from this viewpoint for the first time, and to investigate its relationship with sociometric choice status through the late childhood and adolescent years. This will serve two primary purposes.

First of all, this study will attempt to clarify some of the factors which operate in self-disclosure itself at various levels of development. Practically all we know of self-disclosure at present concerns adults' socialization. If this phenomenon is to be of greater value to developmental research, more information is needed about its characteristics in various other groups.

The second purpose to be served is to further evaluate the validity of the assumptions made by self-disclosure researchers that it is useful as a measure of personality health and that it fosters good interpersonal relations. Sociometric status can be seen as one indicator of good interpersonal relations, and it should therefore be positively related to self-disclosure.

The theoretical basis from which this investigation was derived is that of cognitive-perceptual theory as presented by such authors as Gossin and Berge (1977), L. J. Seiden (1962), Maslow (1954, 1962), Mowrer (1961), and others. It is further, and more particularly, derived from Jourard's (1963a, 1964) theories and related research on self-disclosure and personality health.

The above theoretical positions contain many basic hypotheses, too many to include them all here. However, those which are directly connected with this study include the following:

1. The living organism is an open energy system in which there is some degree of constant interchange of influence between the individual and his environment.
2. The individual's self system, including his self-concept, ideal self, and public self or selves, is a primary determinant of the amount and kind of interchange which goes on between himself and his environment, including other individuals.
3. This interaction follows the general rule that the kind and amount of interaction will be positively related to the degree to which the individual perceives this interchange to be related to and non-threatening to his self system.

4. In general, greater interchange between the individual and his environment is a precursor and indicator of personality health if this interchange is genuine and reality-oriented. Genuine here means that the interchange is made with no intent to deceive or to promote one individual's welfare in an unfair manner.

5. Genuine, reality-oriented interchange between individuals will tend to further increase the mutual attraction between the interacting individuals if it is done in a non-threatening manner.

For the purposes of this study, the interchange spoken of in the above assumptions is termed self-disclosure.

"Self-disclosure refers to the process of making the self known to other persons." (Journard, 1964, p. 139) Inherent in the idea of disclosure as used in this sense is that it is genuine and reality-oriented. It is the making known of true, real, or actual experiences, ideas, needs, values, etc. to some target. A disclosure target is defined as the person or persons to whom a disclosure is made.

Sociometric status (the term social acceptance, social desirability, and social status are often used as more or less equivalents) is defined as the perceived attractiveness of an individual by others. For present purposes this attractiveness is seen as a global factor

which is composed of many smaller factors such as leadership, popularity, friendship, etc. Sociometric studies status is operationally defined in this experiment as the average rated attractiveness of an individual over a sample of five of these factors by his school peers. No attempt is made to weigh these factors or to study them separately.

Review of the Literature

Self-disclosure. Although the term "self-disclosure" is a fairly recent addition to psychology, the basic idea of genuine, reality-oriented communication as an adjunct to healthy personality has been dealt with by many theorists in the past. Jourard (1954a, Chapter 3) discusses some of these authors and their approaches, and those interested in a theory of self-disclosure are referred to this source.

Several studies also appear in the literature which investigate the relationship between self-disclosure and healthy personality by experimental methods. Jourard (1954b) summarizes some of the earlier results in this area. One of the findings which he reports is that persons with abnormal MMPI profiles showed lower disclosure levels, particularly to their parents, than those with normal profiles. A more recent study by Halleney (1964), with college males as subjects, found that low disclosers were significantly higher on the 35 (social introversion) scale but that there were no other significant differences on the MMPI. He also found that low disclosers felt themselves to be

less like their own social ideals than higher disclosers, and that they had less positive identification with their parents. Fossell and Jourard (1963) also report some interesting results in this area. They found that, while normally achieving and underachieving college students did not differ in overall disclosure, underachievers' security was positively related to their disclosure to parents while security was related to disclosure to peers for the normally achieving group. The authors interpreted this as a lack of assimilation from parents on the part of the under-achievers, in that they showed a pattern typically found in young children.

Bredsky (1964) reports results which conflict with Jourard's and Milkeny's in that his experimental group, composed of males who sought counseling help in their college dormitories, showed higher disclosure to peers and less to parents than did the non-counseled group. Bredsky explains the difference as possibly being due to the fact that many of his counseled group were actually not very disturbed and were often seeking assistance or short-term personal advice. A final study (Jourard, 1966) found that, among student nurses, high self-disclosure scores were related to a high ability to communicate and relate to patients.

Several factors have been found to be important in determining self-disclosure behavior. Jourard and Lashman (1960), Jourard and Lashman (1961), and Jourard and Richman (1963) found that females typically disclose more than males

in nearly all subject areas and to all targets. Richards-Ovadiankin and Samels (1980) found opposite results, while Fiesl (1983) and Fiesl (1985) failed to find a sex difference. Jourard (1964) explains this discrepancy in results in the first two studies as possibly due to the fact that they were done in a Southern college culture while his own research was confined to the Southwest. The Fiesl study was also done on groups outside the Northwestern United States, and the reasoning might be advanced in this case as well. Nevertheless, further investigation appears to be greatly needed concerning this aspect of self-disclosure.

Age does not appear to be an important factor in self-disclosure in adult populations unless the age range is fairly great. Thus, Fiesl (1983) and Richards-Ovadiankin (1980) found no significant differences in disclosure attributable to age in college groups with as much as an eight year age range. However, in a study involving subjects ranging in age from 17 to beyond 45, Jourard (1964a) found a decrease in self-disclosure to the targets of mother, father, and same-sex friend as age increased, and an increase in disclosure to opposite-sex friend or spouse up to age 40, with a decrease thereafter.

In 1936, Kurt Lewin discussed cultural differences in communication behavior between the United States and Germany from a theoretical standpoint. Simply stated, his hypothesis was that Americans should communicate more openly than-

values about themselves that should become because of cultural differences between the two countries. Flagg (1985) has recently tested this hypothesis and found this to be true. Other studies have also explored national, cultural, class, and race differences in self-disclosure. Jourard (1981a) found in one study that British college females were consistently lower disclosure than their American counterparts. In another study (1981b) he found that Puerto Rican males and females who had been matched with an American sample were lower all-around disclosers than Americans except that female Puerto Ricans disclosed more to their mothers than the American females. Kulikias (1982) found no overall differences in self-disclosure among a group of University students from several countries in the Middle East, but did find some significant differences in disclosure to various targets among the different nationalities.

In one of the earliest self-disclosure studies, Jourard and Laschew (1958) found that white college students in the Southeastern United States disclosed more both overall and to various targets than their Negro counterparts. Finally, Hirs-Reinovsky, et al. (1982b) examined class differences in marriage communication and found that working class people are more likely than higher classes to have poor marriage communication, and that they are less likely to have a confidant outside the marriage. This is more true, however, of men than women, one of whose favorite extra-marital confi-

data appears to be the wife's mother.

In an experiment investigating self-disclosure and religious belief, Jansard (1964a) found that there were no religious differences among families but that males of the Jewish faith were higher disclosers than male Catholics, Muslims, or Methodists. These last three groups did not differ significantly among themselves.

While self-disclosure behavior appears to be unrelated to I. Q. (at least when this is within normal limits) it has been shown to be related to academic achievement. Jansard (1965) found that factors such as I. Q., achievement, classroom behavior, and trustworthiness did not affect the validity of a self-report technique, while Gendley and Komaridis (1966) found no disclosure differences attributable to I. Q. or educational level in a sample of men in which the ranges of these variables was rather limited. However, Jansard (1964) found high levels of self-disclosure to be related to high grades in clinical nursing courses, and Powell and Jansard (1965) found disclosure pattern differences between college students who were underachievers and those who were not.

One of the particularly most useful aspects of self-disclosure behavior is the fact that there are often distinct differences in target choice preferences between groups which do not differ in the amount of overall disclosure. Jansard (1964, pp. 172-173) has summarized the results of most of the studies dealing with this phenomenon

and reports several consistent findings. Among married persons, the spouse is the person who receives the most disclosures, and this is typically more than any one target receives among unmarried persons. Single subjects of college age show a less general pattern, and sex differences are usually varied. Females typically choose mother, female friend, male friend, and father in descending order while males choose male friend, mother or female friend, and father. Jourard and Richman (1963) support this in a study in which they found that males typically related to peers while females related to their own sex.

A final factor in disclosure which is pertinent to this study and which will be mentioned here is what Jourard terms the "Pygmalion effect" in disclosing. Jourard (1959), Jourard and Laseman (1960), and Jourard and Richman (1963) have all found that there is a positive relationship between disclosure input and disclosure output. That is, self-disclosure to a person tends to elicit disclosure from that person in return.

Interpersonal Attraction. Sociometric status has been much more widely investigated than has self-disclosure, and the studies cover a greater range of subjects and situations. Sociometric status may be generally defined as the perceived attractiveness of an individual by others. However, this definition does not appear to be very useful in research because of the changing nature of the factors which make

For high closeness from one situation to another. Myer and Dafing (1962) question whether or not there is such a thing as a general social acceptability factor in a study which showed that children in the fifth through twelfth grades ranked their classmates differently according to the need situation. Coleman (1961) illustrates the changing nature of this phenomenon quite vividly in his study of several high school societies, and Paterson, et al. (1964) report results which suggest that, while there appears to be a more or less general, highly complex choice factor with leadership as a major component, there is no set, specific group of factors which operates in sociometric choice in all situations.

Discussion of the factors which have been found to influence sociometric choice in various situations or over a number of situations will be handled in three parts: general personality factors, descriptive factors, and more specific personality and behavioral factors. It would be impossible to cover all of the literature in this area within the scope of this dissertation. Therefore, those studies which have been chosen are those which are more recent and/or relevant to the techniques and factors used in this study.

At least one research study has found a positive relationship between sociometric choice status and overall personality health. Batterline (1959) found that highly chosen subjects exhibited higher self-esteem and rated high

car on Roper's Test of Personality Development than did subjects who were less chosen. Several studies can be cited as examples of attempts to describe the general personality patterns of both highly chosen and rejected children. Tesser and Garden (1968) found that, for a sample of fifth grade students, boys were more popular when they exhibited a high drive level and a field analytic approach to problems, while girls were more popular when they exhibited a relatively low drive and a field dependent approach. The authors discuss this in relationship to socio-cultural demands on boys as they differ from those placed on girls, and point out that high sociometric choices goes along with "current" role playing. Berwick (1962) used children in the fourth through sixth grades and the same measure of desire as the previous authors (the Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale), and found that more anxious children tended to be less popular regardless of sex.

Dependency on adults as opposed to dependency on peers seems to be an important factor in popularity very early in life. Mahoney, et al. (1968) found that, for a preadolescent age group, popularity was negatively correlated with dependency on adults and total adult contact. Moore and Uptagraff (1964) found this to be so only for the three to four year olds in their preschool groups, but report that nurturance giving and dependency on peers were positively related to popularity in all groups.

In a study done in 1956, Elkins found that eighth grade

students who were ranked high in sociometric status were described as flexible in their role performances, had the ability to meet the needs of others, could further the goals of the group, displayed acceptable behavior patterns, were more intelligent, had higher socio-economic status, had higher academic scores, and were younger than average. Other studies support many of these results.

The latter factors mentioned by Hinkle are of a demographic nature and lead to a discussion of the findings in this area. There is some inconsistency present, but overall the results indicate that only some demographic factors are significant. Tannen' (1961) study reports that social acceptability was related to such factors as area of residence, age, sex, community, intelligence, physique, physical maturity, brilliance in studies, similarity of interests, socio-economic status, and personal qualities in a group of adolescent subjects. Support for the importance of academic achievement is also offered by Johnson (1958).

Feinberg, et al. (1956) found relationships between sociometric status and socio-economic class as well as a difference in the criteria used by upper, middle, and lower class subjects in defining acceptance. They found that the upper class group stressed cooperation, leadership, and participation in activities, while the middle group stressed interdependence, and the lower group fair play and trustworthiness.

Kasse (1958) reports a significant sex factor in

sociometric choice among fifth graders, but Moore and Dodgegraff (1964) found that, while preschool-age children had a tendency to give positive ratings to the same sex and negative ratings to the opposite sex, there was no overall sex difference in sociometric status. The literature suggests that sex differences may not appear until after about the third grade, after which age nearly all studies report sex as a significant factor.

Leadership of one type or another is one factor which frequently plays a part in sociometric choice procedures. Coleman (1961, pp. 347) found that girls ranked leadership in activities as second in importance in determining popularity, while boys placed it in third place. Furthermore, this factor accounted for a great part of the variance in the ratings. Ross, et al. (1959) found that their sample perceived leaders, as opposed to non-leaders, to be higher in confidence and realism, more willing to accept responsibility, more forceful and persuasive, more driving and obligatory, and more aware of how others see them. Sachs (1977) showed that female adolescent leaders were higher in scientific interests, athletic leadership, popularity, attractiveness, prestige, membership, and boys' rating, while male leaders were higher in acceptability, athletic leadership, conformity, prominence, and social interests. Finally, Maxwell (1960) found that when a group of army infantry men in leadership training were asked to rate each other on leadership, the same interpersonal knowledge a

subject had of his fellows the higher were the leadership potential ratings he received from them.

The term probably most often used as a synonym for social vision or acceptance is popularity, and it is indeed difficult to leave this factor out of any consideration of success in interpersonal relationships. Unfortunately, popularity is defined in many ways and, like sociometric status itself, this definition often changes from situation to situation. However, a number of research studies have attempted to isolate relatively stable components, and there does appear to be a general pattern present.

Jordan and Thompson (1947) asked sixth graders to list reasons why they chose and rejected friends and found that frequency of association and similarity of needs were the major factors in both of them. Among the characteristics included under similarity of needs were cheerfulness, friendliness, kindness, quietness, and a number of others which are generally seen as socially desirable. Feinberg, et al. (1951) also found that accepted peers ranked high in the number of these types of accessories which were applied to them while rejected persons tended to have opposite characteristics such asanness, selfishness, silliness, etc. Additional support is offered by Blau (1960) and Coleman (1961).

As with self-disclosure, there is a degree of extensibility involved in choosing or rejecting a person. Aschler (1963) demonstrated that "likes" and "dislikes" are an experimen-

tally created among adolescent girls by altering their perceptions of how they are perceived by others. He found that subjects expressed a greater amount of liking for those other subjects when they felt liked than when they did for those who they felt disliked them. Reiss (1962), in his study of fifth graders, found that girls were chosen among boys highly chosen by other boys, but that this did not hold true for boys' choices of girls.

Interaction of Self-Disclosure and Sociometric Status. Some of the studies discussed in the preceding sections on self-disclosure and on sociometric status have also dealt with the interaction of these two variables. This final section will discuss studies dealing with this interaction at more length.

Shan's (1960) paper on social integration theory cites empirical data which support his hypothesis that acceptance as a peer depends on approachability as well as attractiveness. That is, one must allow himself to be "known" by others rather than keeping his attributes hidden. Garsness (1962) reports similar results showing a positive relationship between social status (sociometric choice) and both the ability to communicate verbally with others and overall certainty in interpersonal relationships. Howard (1965) found that the distribution of personal information about group members served to increase greatly within that group, and Quay (1964) found that high self-disclosure showed a greater liking for the groups of which they were members than did low disclosure.

Several studies have found a positive relationship between how well a person is liked by another and how much that other will disclose to him (Fitzgerald, 1953; Jourard, 1957; Jourard and Lashman, 1960; Jourard and Lashaw, 1968; for example) although this appears to be less true among men than women. The converse relationship, whether disclosure involves liking, is not as clearly demonstrated. Jourard's (1959) study suggests that if such a relationship exists, it is not a linear one. He found that, while disclosing and liking increase together to a certain point, very high disclosures may be elicited as much as very low disclosures.

Design and Hypotheses

The basic theoretical hypotheses stated at the beginning of this chapter and the preceding review of the literature leads to several questions worthy of study in the present research. These will be formulated below, along with a design for testing them as hypotheses.

In the area of self-disclosure, three basic variables appear to be crucial in understanding disclosing behavior: the sex of the discloser, the age of the discloser, and the target disclosed to. While there is some inconsistency in the results cited in the literature, it seems to be a general principle that females disclose more than males. The present study tests this hypothesis, and we expect to find such the same results.

So far, no studies have investigated self-disclosure

in adolescents, but research with persons aged 17 and above would lead us to hypothesize that age does not affect disclosing behavior unless the age range is fairly large. When age changes do occur, the research indicated gradually increasing self-disclosure until middle age. The present study encompasses an age range of about 8 years, but these are years of great change in patterns of inter-personal relations. Therefore, we would expect that age would be a significant factor in this case.

One of the basic theoretical hypotheses underlying this research is that the kind and amount of self-disclosure given by an individual is related to his perception of both the relevance and the good will of the target person. All previous research has shown significant differences in target choice preference. Those studies most closely resembling the present design indicate that mother is the target generally preferred by college age subjects, with best male and female friend grouped together below that, and fathers significantly below them. We would expect the present sample to show relatively more disclosure to fathers at the outset, and to move towards a pattern more like that of previous studies in the later grades.

Another pattern which should show up is a distinct preference for disclosing to a member of the same sex rather than the opposite sex. However, this would probably be more true of disclosure to peers than to parents in

view of the fact that seniors are an overwhelming favorite in the latter category. On the basis of developmental studies in the past, we would also expect this same-age preference to be strongest in the late elementary and early junior high school grades.

From both a theoretical and empirical standpoint we would predict that self-disclosure between two individuals will be reinforcing and thus tend to produce more disclosure. This dyadic effect has been demonstrated in several studies, and is a major phenomenon under investigation in the present research.

In studies dealing with sociometric choice, age and sex appear to be the two variables most important to the overall purpose of this study as outlined at the beginning of this chapter. The only consistent finding concerning sex differences appears to be the fact that subjects tend to give higher ratings to members of the same sex than to the opposite sex. Developmental studies show, in general, that subjects become more accurate in judging themselves and others as they grow older. We would not expect to find significant sex or grade effects in the present study, but we would expect to find significant interactions between the sex of the rater and the person rated.

The findings just mentioned would also lead us to predict that, in a situation where we could compare a subject's self-evaluation of his disclosing behavior with

his classmates' evaluation of that same behavior, the correlation between these two would increase as age increased.

Research has also demonstrated a dyadic effect in sociometric choice, in that there is a tendency for subjects to rate each other mutually high or low. This should hold for the present investigation.

The interaction between self-disclosure and sociometric choice is of major importance in assessing the usefulness of the former as a tool for the study of personality. The theoretical hypotheses strongly suggest that greater interchange between the individual and his environment is an indicator of personality health if the interchange is genuine and reality-oriented, and that this interchange should serve to increase the attraction between the discloser and the targets disclosed to. There is some research evidence to support these hypotheses, and we would predict that, in this study, high levels of self-disclosure will generally result in high sociometric status within the group to whom the disclosure is given.

The procedure chosen for testing the above questions was the use of self report and rating techniques, as described in the following chapter, and the utilization of analysis of variance and correlation statistics to determine the significance of the results. The self-disclosure scale selected can be analyzed through the use of a chi-

model factorial design described by Lindquist (1953, pp. 123 ff.) or Winer (1962, pp. 317 ff.), thereby allowing comparisons of both between subjects and within subjects differences.

The acoustometric data fits a mixed factorial design (Lindquist, 1953, pp. 207 ff. or Winer, 1962, pp. 340 ff.). Both designs involve unequal cell frequencies and must be solved by means of either the least squares or unweighted means methods. These are described in Winer (1962, pp. 322-326), and this text was referred to in those analyses done by this author. The computer solution of the mixed model design was by means of the least squares method, and this was continued in the statistics contributed by the author for analysis of the self-disclosure material. The analysis of variance of the acoustometric choice material was done entirely by the author and the unweighted means solution was chosen as simpler and more applicable to the data.

The statistic used for the correlational work was Pearson's r , although analysis of covariance was also made on the work done at the computing center. This latter is not presented in this dissertation since it only depicts what the data which is included.

The hypotheses discussed above are presented below in correlational terms in groupings which fit the statistical models used. The first hypothesis derives from information gained as a result of superficial analysis of

the data from the first sample investigated, and which led to the testing of a second sample. The circumstances regarding the development of this hypothesis are discussed in more detail in the following chapter. The hypothesis is listed first for the sake of convenience in discussing the results. The column below indicates the more important hypotheses, and the more important parts of these hypotheses are stated first.

H1-a. The effect of increasing the range of choices of a subject's disclosure targets is to increase his disclosure to those targets.

-b. The two samples tested in this study do not differ in self-disclosure to the target persons except as a result of a change in circumstances.

The major hypotheses regarding self-disclosure are as follows:

H2-a. Female subjects are significantly higher disclosers than males.

-b. The difference between males and females in the amount of disclosure increases as age increases.

H3. There is a significant increase in total self-disclosure with increasing age.

H4. Mothers are favored over fathers as disclosure targets, but there is no significant difference in the amount of self-disclosure to best male and best female friend.

H5. Disclosure to targets of the same sex is

significantly greater than disclosure to opposite-sex targets when disclosing to peers.

H5-4. As age increases, self-disclosure to father decreases faster than disclosure to mother.

-5. There is no significant interaction between target and grade for self-disclosure to male and female friend.

H7-4. There is a positive relationship between disclosure input and disclosure output, either self-rated or as rated by others.

-4. There is a positive relationship between self-rated disclosure and disclosure as rated by others.

The following hypotheses deal with the Interpersonal knowledge questionnaire (described in the following chapter) and are of more minor importance in the overall study.

H8. Interpersonal knowledge ratings made by an individual or by his class are not affected by the sex of the subject.

H9. Interpersonal knowledge ratings made by an individual or by his class are not affected by the age of the subject.

H10. Interpersonal knowledge ratings made by an individual or by his class are not affected by the interaction of the sex and the age of the subject.

The hypotheses dealing with work-related choices are given next. They are also secondary in importance to the

self-disclosure hypotheses, but more central to the study than those preceding.

H1-a. There is a positive relationship between sociometric choice ratings given by subjects to persons of the same or opposite sex and ratings received from those persons in return.

H1-b. Overall sociometric choice scores given or received by an individual are not affected by the sex of the subject.

H1-c. Overall sociometric choice scores given or received by an individual are not affected by the age of the subject.

H1-d. Overall sociometric choice scores given or received by an individual are not affected by the interaction of the sex and the age of the subject.

The final hypothesis, stated in two parts, is regarded as of major importance to the study. This, along with the self-disclosure hypotheses, constitutes the two primary purposes of the present research.

H2-a. There is a positive relationship between the amount of self-rated disclosure or interpersonal knowledge and sociometric choice scores given or received.

H2-b. There is a positive relationship between the amount of other-rated disclosure or interpersonal knowledge and sociometric choice scores given or received.

II

PROCEDURE

II. PROCEDURE

Subjects

The subjects in this study were 180 school children enrolled in the fourth through twelfth grades of two school systems in the Southeastern United States. This grade range was chosen so as to sample the active adolescence period and to include late childhood and the beginning of adulthood as well. School grade was used to indicate chronological age in this case. The two are close enough in equivalence in modern school systems that this was thought to be justifiable.

Because of the variety of factors which may affect both self-disclosure and nonconcrete choice, the samples were chosen so that the subjects in each were as homogeneous as possible in socio-economic background and general intelligence as well as being a representative sample of their general community. All subjects in each sample came from the same county and school districts.

Sample A consisted of 18 males and 18 females drawn from the fifth, seventh, ninth, and eleventh grades of a kindergarten through twelfth grade laboratory school awarded in connection with the University of Florida. Table I shows the breakdown by grade and sex of this

sample. In all cases, complete classroom or "open" units were used in order to be able to make the sociometric choice measurements within a meaningful social grouping.

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF SUBJECTS WITH
BY SAMPLE, GRADE, AND SEX

Sam- ple	Grade	Sex	No. of's by sex	Grade Total
A	5	M F	13 14	27
	7	M F	15 17	32
	9	M F	13 13	26
	11	M F	12 8	20
	Sample Total	M F	48 48	101
B	4	M F	24 21	45
	6	M F	27 27	54
	8	M F	17 17	34
	10	M F	13 13	26
	12	M F	13 13	26
	Sample Total	M F	78 73	149

The test instruments used with sample 1 included a sociometric status and interpersonal knowledge rating scale and a modified version of a self-disclosure questionnaire developed by S. M. Jourard. These instruments are described and discussed in the following section. The subjects were tested approximately one-third of the way through the school year, and all of the subjects in each class had had at least several weeks contact with each other.

The community from which sample 1 was drawn is a city of approximately 30,000 which is dependent primarily on farming, light industry, and state institutions for its economy. In addition to the state's largest university, the county contains an institution for the mentally retarded, a new veterans's hospital, and a medical center.

The laboratory school is composed of children selected to represent a cross-section of the community. It enrolls both white and Negro pupils, but the subjects used in this study were all white because of the demonstrated influence of race on self-disclosure behavior.

Sample 2 consisted of 74 males and 81 females drawn from the fourth, sixth, eighth, tenth, and twelfth grades of a county high school and a neighboring elementary school of the Baldwin County school system in Milledgeville, Georgia. Table 3, previously presented, also shows the breakdown of subjects by grade and sex for this sample. Grade-level classroom or homework units were also used in

this case, even though the testing done did not require it. The subjects tested were approximately three-fourths of the way through the school year, and were administered only the self-disclosure questionnaire.

Sample B was drawn from a community which is similar in many ways to that of sample A. The two schools are located in a town of about 12,000 population, in a county with a population of about 32,000. The state's largest mental institution is the chief economic source, although it also has farming, light industry, a women's college, a military school, a women's prison, and a training school for boys.

The two schools used for sample B are representative of the county in socio-economic makeup. Both have some Negro pupils, but again only white subjects were used.

Instrument

Self-disclosure was measured by a modified version of Leonard and Leachur's (1958) questionnaire, rating 40 items on a 0 to 4 point scale across four target persons. See appendix A for a list of the items used in this questionnaire. The original scale was developed for a college-age population, and as far as it has been used only with such subjects. The present version, adapted by the author, uses the same items, reworded and abbreviated in order to be understandable by grade school children.

The instructions have also been adapted to this age group. A preliminary investigation has revealed that, while beginning fourth graders often have some trouble understanding the nature of the task and the items, beginning fifth graders are able to take it with little trouble. The youngest subjects used in this study were about three-fourths of the way through the fourth grade, and appeared to understand the task sufficiently well for valid results.

It was decided to expand the rating scale for this questionnaire from three to five intervals in order to allow for a finer discrimination in disclosure levels. This author considers that the three point scale presents gaps which are too large and too subjectively variable between a score of zero for no disclosure, one point for general disclosure, and two points for full disclosure. A more finely graded scale of five points should make the instrument more discriminating without greatly increasing either the testing time or the complexity of the rating task.

The four target persons used in the questionnaire are the subject's mother, father, best male friend, and best female friend. In addition to giving information about the individual targets, these four can be combined into a pair made up of mother and father to measure disclosure to adults or authority figures, and a pair composed of best male and female friends to measure dis-

closure to norms. In this way, another dimension of disclosure behavior can be investigated.

Reliability for this type of questionnaire appears to be quite good. Jourard and Lasnik (1968) report a split-half reliability of .54 for their questionnaire, indicating that subjects answer consistently across both target versions and subject areas. Fitzgerald (1963) found similar results using the odd-even method, and Fiske (in press) showed this questionnaire to be one of the most reliable of a number of psychological tests.

The Jourard questionnaire also appears to be fairly stable over short periods of time. Brodsky and Smarshin (1965) found no change in overall disclosure scores over a period of five weeks in a group of prisoners, although there were target preference changes. Taylor (1963) found a significant increase in disclosure between room-mates over a 13-week span, but noted that this was gradual and general. Mishara-Dzianchik and Sumin (1958), using a similar technique, found a retest reliability of .69 ($p < .001$) after 18 months.

A vital point in this study is the validity of the instruments used. Self-report as a technique for obtaining information from subjects is widely used and widely debated in both clinical and experimental psychology. Brewer (1963) attempted to shed some light on this question with his studies of fifth and sixth grade students. The subjects were asked to report on items found in their

space and these results were then verified. Research found significant correlations between the self-report and observation on 72 of 80 items. Phillips (1963) investigated age changes in accuracy of perception and found that, while third grade males were generally rather inaccurate in rating themselves on a number of personality and achievement variables, sixth graders came quite close to the criterion ratings given to them by peers and teachers.

Recently, several researchers have attempted to validate Jourard's questionnaire through comparison of self-rated disclosure and actual disclosing behavior or rated disclosure by others. In one such study, Jourard and Landman (1964) found close agreement between self-rated disclosure patterns and ratings by others in a sample of college men. Garry (1964) found a significant correlation between scores on the Jourard questionnaire and the number of self-disclosure behavioral items which were checked off by observers on the Flannery Group Psychotherapy Rating Scale while these subjects were in group therapy.

Three recent studies have failed to find a significant correlation between questionnaire scores and behavior. Rosenbluth and Kinsrough (1963) found no significant relationship between self-disclosure scores and either the amount of time spent in introducing oneself to classmates or the amount of personal information revealed in the introduction. Lubin and Barabson (1964) found a nonsig-

sufficient correlation of only .11 between questionnaire scores and observer-rated disclosing behavior in a group of businessmen. Finally, Hunsdelstein and Levin (1968) report a similar failure of the self-disclosure questionnaire with members of college Greek-letter societies.

While the authors attribute these failures to a number of causes, these studies raise serious questions concerning the range of usefulness of this instrument. For this reason, the present study includes a test of the scale's validity in the same situation in which it is given.

As part of the sociometric choice scale, described below, items were included which asked the rater to indicate his perception of how well he knew every other person in the class and how well they knew him. By placing these ratings in a row and column arrangement it was then possible to check directly an individual's self-perceptions against his classmates' ratings of the same variable. These ratings were also compared to the more lengthy and sophisticated self-rating of the self-disclosure questionnaire. A copy of the Interpersonal Knowledge scale may be found as part of the sociometric choice scale in appendix A.

Although there are existing scales and questionnaires for assessing sociometric choice status, the present research used a scale devised by the author. It consists of statements in five areas of interpersonal relations on which the subject is to rate every other

member in his class, using a rating scale of 0 to 4 points. The two interpersonal knowledge items described above are included in this questionnaire because they are scored in the same way.

The five areas which define sociometric status in this study are: the extent to which the subject is seen as a member of the leading crowd, the extent to which he is seen as someone the rater would wish to be like, the extent to which he would be chosen as a friend, the extent to which he would be chosen as a leader, and the extent to which the rater would share a secret with the subject.

The investigator chose to use the technique of employing several variables to define sociometric status rather than a single one because of the strong evidence in the literature that sociometric status is not based on a unitary factor. It was felt that the use of several factors previously identified as contributing to sociometric status would result in a more general and comprehensive picture of the subject's status in his classroom. The reasons for the choice of the particular factors used are discussed below.

Another decision based on evidence gained from a reading of the literature was the use of ratings on every subject in every area by all other members of his group. This technique, termed the "rate sociometric technique", is discussed by Ames (1962) and others, and is felt to be similar to the peer nomination or "guess who" techniques

because it does not leave unexplored those subjects who are neither chosen nor rejected, and therefore not fully dealt with, by these latter procedures.

The specific choices of variables used in the questionnaires are again largely based on information gained from the literature. Items 1 and 2, membership in the leading crowd and someone to be liked, were the two which provided the best consensus among Coleman's (1961, pp 177-178) subjects as criteria for social popularity. Both Coleman and E. W. Gordon (1957, pp 149-164) used the factor of choice as a friend, which appears as item number 3 in this questionnaire, and Gordon also found item 4, choice as a leader, to be important. The last item, sharing a secret, was selected by this author because it seems to have face validity and because it relates to the area under investigation. The review of the literature in the preceding section also shows other studies which used one or more of these items.

The reliability of sociometric choice techniques appears to be a function not only of the time interval involved, but also the age group being studied. For example, Moore and Hydenraff (1964) found social status to be only moderately consistent even over a short period of time in a sample of children aged 3 to 5½. However, with elementary school status tests, Chatterjee (1964) found reliability significant over a period of 3 weeks and Bels (1964) also found reliability of choices to be

significant over longer periods of time. With an adolescent group, Feinberg (1964) retested subjects after 5 months and his results showed a correlation with the original rating of .69, with a stability index of .87. These results were significant beyond the .01 level, but retest after two years yielded non-significant reliability coefficients. In view of these studies, it seems probable that the present research is investigating a relatively stable phenomenon which indicates a more or less stable picture of the social status of the subjects.

Questionnaire Administration and Instructions

The first step in administering the questionnaires was to obtain permission and cooperation from all of the teachers and administrators involved. These persons were told the nature of the research, and its purpose, and all questions were answered. At the time scheduled for administration of the questionnaire, the subjects were read the introductory statement and instructions accompanying each questionnaire as it was given.

As has been noted, sample A was given both the self-disclosure and sociometric choice scales, while sample B received only the former. This was done both because the classroom arrangements in sample B made it impossible to satisfy the necessary conditions for administration of the sociometric questionnaire and because this second sample was tested primarily to assess the effect of a

change in instructions in the self-disclosure questionnaire.

The instructions used with the questionnaires may be found as part of the questionnaire forms in appendix A. The only change made in the instructions for the self-disclosure questionnaire for sample B was the elimination of the limiting words "in this class" for the subjects' choices of best male and best female friends. These limiting words were included in the instructions for sample A in order to allow a more accurate comparison between self-disclosure and sociometric standing within the classroom unit, but a preliminary analysis revealed that they also reduced disclosure to friends to an unknown but seemingly significant degree. Therefore, sample B was allowed free choice of best friends as a way of assessing the difference attributable to the change in instructions.

The questionnaire instructions were so designed as to provide practice at making the required ratings, and to allow for questions and clarification as testing proceeded. During the actual rating sessions, all questions concerning procedure and word definitions were answered by the experimenter or teacher, and whenever applicable were directed toward the whole group as well as the person requesting help.

Questionnaire protocols were discarded before analyzing for any one of three reasons:

1. All protocols were discarded which came from subjects who were obviously answering to a random and

inappropriate manner, or who were obviously unable to comprehend the nature of the task. This was ascertained through observation of the subjects during the rating sessions, and this type of rejection accounted for very few of the total.

2. Those subjects who had one or both parents missing from the home were discarded from further consideration in the present study. These subjects can yield valuable information concerning target substitution and family interaction. However, there were not enough of them to treat separately, and to include them with the other subjects, even on a protected basis, could result in misleading conclusions.

3. Those subjects who were absent on the date of testing were not included later, and their sociometric ratings by their classmates were excluded from the final calculation. This was necessary in order to prevent incomplete ratings.

III RESULTS

III. RESULTS

Hypothesis 1a predicts that increasing the range of choice of a subject's disclosure targets will increase the amount of disclosure he makes to those targets. This was accomplished in this research by allocating the groups restricting the choice of best male and female friend to a class mate for those subjects in sample 2. The hypothesis is supported, along with 1b, which predicts no other significant differences in overall disclosure to the targets. Table 2, below, indicates that the samples differ in the amount of disclosure to friends, for which the instructions were different, but do not differ in disclosure to strangers, for which the instructions were the same for the two samples.

TABLE 2

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SAMPLES IN SELF-DISCLOSURE

Disclosure Targets	Mean for sample 1	Mean for sample 2	Difference	t	df
Neither	101.43	100.18	1.25	0.39	83
Partner	87.83	81.75	6.07	0.33	83
M friend	51.95	63.38	-11.43	-0.88	.001
F friend	56.81	67.09	-10.27	-0.77	.001

Throughout the text, t ratios have been computed by means of one of the formulas given below, in which the degrees of freedom are those for the appropriate error term or subjects. In some cases only the t ratios and significant levels have been given in order to keep the tables from becoming confusingly complicated.

$$t = \frac{\bar{M}_a - \bar{M}_b}{\sqrt{M_{ab} \left(\frac{1}{n_a} + \frac{1}{n_b} \right)}}$$

$$t = \frac{\bar{M}_a - \bar{M}_b}{\sqrt{\frac{S_a^2}{n_a} + \frac{S_b^2}{n_b}}}$$

Hypothesis 2-a, that females are significantly higher disclosers than males, is supported for sample 2 but not for sample 3. Tables 3 and 4, following, present the analysis of variance summaries for self-disclosure to parents and to friends for sample 3. In both cases the F ratios for sex difference is not significant.

TABLE 3

ANALYSIS SUMMARY OF SELF-DISCLOSURE TO PARENTS: SAMPLE 3

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	p
Between subjects	100	134871.77			
Sex	1	2216.39	2216.39	1.55	.22
Grade	3	12203.05	4067.68	2.87	.83
Sex x G	3	10325.89	3441.96	2.49	.82
Error (b)	95	130525.72	1373.96		
Within subjects	201	34113.03			
Target	1	5033.13	5033.13	36.61	.001
G x T	1	5009.31	5009.31	36.30	.001
G x T	3	1896.89	632.29	4.60	.01
Sex x G x T	3	770.10	256.70	1.84	.82
Error (a)	95	16310.23	171.79		
Total	201	169009.65			

TABLE 4

ANOVA SUMMARY OF SELF-DISCLOSURE TO FRIENDS: SAMPLE A

Sources	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	α
Between subjects	100	166019.71			
Sex	1	900.00	900.00	—	.05
Grade	3	7621.73	2540.58	1.50	.05
$S \times G$	3	1413.96	471.32	1.00	.05
Error (b)	96	152269.01	1585.10		
Within subjects	101	179046.46			
Target	1	130.04	130.04	1.31	.05
$S \times T$	1	108151.36	108151.36	134.90	.000
$G \times T$	3	1439.83	479.94	—	.05
$S \times G \times T$	3	341.17	113.72	1.00	.05
Error (c)	96	63413.40	660.55		
Total	201	345066.16			

Tables 5 and 6 below present the analysis of variance summaries for self-disclosure to parents and friends for sample B. The F ratios are significant at or beyond the .001 level in both cases.

TABLE 5

ANOVA SUMMARY OF SELF-DISCLOSURE TO PARENTS: SAMPLE B

Sources	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	α
Between subjects	148	237083.34			
Sex	1	1301.73	1301.73	11.46	.001
Grade	4	12927.98	3231.99	2.90	.05
$S \times G$	4	23400.31	5850.08	4.44	.01
Error (b)	139	186423.50	1341.90		
Within subjects	149	128117.90			
Target	1	12973.00	12973.00	60.33	.000
$S \times T$	1	4308.08	4308.08	10.43	.000
$G \times T$	4	123.00	30.75	—	.05
$S \times G \times T$	4	5078.00	1269.50	1.00	.05
Error (c)	139	110013.40	791.46		
Total	297	365201.24			

TABLE 6

ANOVA SUMMARY OF SELF-DISCLOSURE TO FRIENDS: SAMPLE B

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	α
Between subjects	149	202197.48			
Sex	1	20143.67	20143.67	14.80	.001
Grade	4	18098.85	4524.72	7.04	.001
Sex x G	4	6177.55	1544.38	1.14	.33
Error (b)	139	187795.99	1351.05		
Within subjects	149	181860.40			
Target	2	44.85	22.42	ns	.93
Sex x T	1	30139.34	30139.34	22.48	.001
Sex x T	4	8828.97	2207.24	3.48	.01
Sex x G x T	139	77738.84	559.25		
Total	297	373458.14			

Table 7, located in appendix B, presents the means and differences in self-disclosure to the targets for sample B, and indicates that females disclosed significantly more than males to both parents and friends.

Hypothesis 1a states that the difference between males and females in the amount of self-disclosure increases as age increases, that females will show increasingly greater disclosure than males. This hypothesis is supported only for disclosure to parents in sample B. As Tables 3 through 6, previously presented, indicate, all other *F* ratios for the sex by grade interaction are not significant. (These tables form the basis for testing hypotheses 1 through 7, and should be consulted initially in regard to each.) Tables 8 through 10 in appendix B, and Fig. 1, below, present the data for disclosure to

parents as a function of grade and sex for sample B.

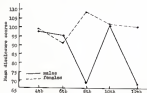


Fig. 1. --Disclosure to parents as a function of grade and sex: sample B.

Table 8 indicates that the sexes differ significantly only in grades 8 and 10, with the females being higher disclosure than the males in both cases. This is due primarily to the fluctuations by the males. In table 9 indicates, females show no significant change in disclosure level throughout the measured period. Males, as indicated in Table 10, do not show a clearly decreasing pattern in disclosure because of the sharp rise at grade 10. However, the trend is in this direction. In evaluating the hypothesis from the standpoint of all the data, it appears to be only tenuously supported, in that 3 of 4 analyses showed no significant interaction.

Hypothesis 1 concerns the effect of increasing age on self-disclosure, and predicts that there will be increasing levels of disclosure with increasing age. This hypothesis also receives only tenuous support. The single significant *F* ratio for age is found for disclosure to friends in sample B. Table 11, in appendix B, and Fig. 2, below, present the specific data concerning this hypothesis.

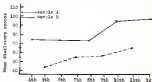


Fig. 2. --Disclosure to friends as a function of grade: samples A & B.

The pattern shows a significant increase in disclosure to friends at grade 10, which continues in grade 11. The pattern for disclosure to friends for sample A was included for purposes of comparison, and shows a similar pattern even though the differences are not significant.

Hypothesis 2 predicts that mothers are favored over fathers as disclosure targets, but that there is no signif-

least difference in the amount of disclosure to best male and best female friend. This hypothesis is strongly supported by the data, as indicated in Tables 12 and 13, below.

TABLE 12

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES IN SELF-DISCLOSURE
TO TARGET PERSONS: SAMPLE 1

Target	Target mean	S of differences between means			
		Mother	F Friend	M Friend	
Mother	100.00				
Father	85.00	15.00 .01	8.44 .001	10.50 .002	
F Friend	76.25		5.51 .001	7.44 .002	
M Friend	71.00			6.75 .01	

TABLE 13

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES IN SELF-DISCLOSURE
TO TARGET PERSONS: SAMPLE 2

Target	Target mean	S of differences between means			
		Mother	F friend	M friend	
Mother	100.25				
Father	85.75	14.50 .001	14.50 .002	14.50 .002	
F friend	85.00		0.25 NS	0.25 NS	
M friend	85.50			0.17 NS	

In both cases there is a significant difference between mother and father and no significant difference between male and female friend. In sample 1, mother and father are disclosed to significantly more than peers, but only mother revealed significantly more than others in sample 2.

Hypothesis 2 predicts a significant sex by target

interaction to the effect that there will be significantly more disclosure to targets of the same sex as the discloser than to targets of the opposite sex when disclosing to peers. Table 14, below, indicates strong support for this hypothesis regardless of the target. Both sexes consistently disclose significantly more to targets of the same sex than to targets of the opposite sex, whether those be parents or friends. However, there is also a significant positive relationship in most cases between the amount of self-disclosure to any one target person and the amount of disclosure to the remaining targets. As Table 15, below, indicates, this relationship fails to reach significance only in the case of disclosure to opposite sex parent and opposite sex friend.

TABLE 14.

MEAN AND DIFFERENCES IN SELF-DISCLOSURE TO SAME
AND OPPOSITE-SEX TARGETS

Sample	Target	Mean	Difference	t	α
A A	S-S Parent O-S Parent	73.48 69.66	3.82	3.68	.001
B B	S-S Parent O-S Parent	66.81 63.07	3.74	4.39	.001
A A	S-S Friend O-S Friend	77.14 71.09	6.05	12.43	.001
B B	S-S Friend O-S Friend	82.76 78.97	3.79	4.30	.001

TABLE 15

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SAME AND OPPOSITE
SEX DISCLOSURE TARGETS

Target	S S Parent	S S Friend	O S Friend
S S Parent	.58% .001	.398 .01	.356 .01
O S Parent		.336 .001	.436 .00
S S Friend			.397 .001
O S Friend	[.45-.521]		

Hypothesis 5a states that, as age increases, self-disclosure to father decreases faster than disclosure to mother. Tables 3 and 5 indicate that there is a significant interaction between target and grade in disclosure to parents only in Sample 2. Table 16 and Fig. 3, below, indicates that mothers receive more disclosure than fathers at all grade levels, and that the magnitude of this difference increases as age increases. Tables 17 and 18 in the appendix E show that the most significant decrease comes between the 5th and 7th grades for both parents, with no significant change thereafter.

TABLE 16

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES IN DISCLOSURE TO FATHER AND
MOTHER AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE: SAMPLE 2

Grade	Mean for Mothers	Mean for Fathers	Differences	t	df
4	110.43	109.80	0.63	2.08	.002
5	100.87	100.74	0.13	8.01	.000
6	99.77	87.93	11.83	7.43	.000
7	95.70	78.00	17.70	9.97	.000

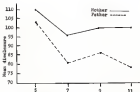


Fig. 3. --Disclosure to mother and father as a function of grade sample 1.

Hypothesis 5-3 predicts that, with regard to male and female friend, there will be no significant interaction of grade and target. Tables 4 and 6 indicate that there is a significant interaction in the case of sample 2. Table 19 and Fig. 4, following, show an inconsistent pattern, with female friends receiving more disclosure in grades 4, 8, and 12, males receiving more in grade 6, and no differences in grade 10. The data in Tables 20 and 21 in appendix B indicate that male targets are more likely to show sudden, significant changes in the amount of disclosure received while female targets show a steadier change.

TABLE 19

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES IN DISCLOSURE TO MALE AND FEMALE FRIENDS AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE: SAMPLE B

Grade	Male friend mean	Female friend mean	Difference	t	n
4	70.43	78.44	-8.01	2.55	.05
6	69.26	82.76	-13.50	3.59	.002
8	70.39	70.39	0.00	2.16	.03
10	98.25	90.04	8.21	2.71	.02
12	95.39	104.50	-9.11	4.08	.002



Fig. 4. --Disclosure to male and female friend as a function of grade: sample B.

Hypothesis 7a, which supposes that there is a positive relationship between disclosure input and disclosure output, either self-rated or as rated by others, is supported. Input, how well a subject knows others, and output, how well a subject is known by others, are correlated $+.326$ for self-ratings and $+.502$ for others

ratings. Both of these are significant beyond the .001 level of confidence.

Hypothesis 7a. That there is a positive relationship between self-rated disclosure and disclosure as rated by others, was tested in four comparison situations and can be clearly supported in only one of these. Table 22, below, presents the comparisons between self and class ratings for two of the situations: how well a subject is known by his classmates and how well he knows his classmates. In both cases the total correlations are non-significant, and only the correlation for self and class rating of how well the subject knows his class for 11th grade subjects reaches significance among the various grades.

TABLE 22

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SELF AND CLASS RATINGS OF
INTERPERSONAL KNOWLEDGE

Grade	N	Self and class rating how well subj. is known	Self and class rating how well subj. knows class
9	27	.129 NS	.162 NS
10	29	.053 NS	.047 NS
11	30	.088 NS	.078 NS
12	23	.252 NS	.002 NS
Tot.	104	.141 NS	.138 NS

Table 2j presents the correlations for the second two instruments: self and class ratings of how well a subject is known by his class and his self-disclosure to friends. For self-ratings and self-disclosure, the total correlations and r 's for each grade except the sixth are significant. This would indicate a generally good agreement between how a person rates himself on these two instruments. In regard to the correlation between class ratings of how well a subject is known and his disclosure to friends, only the two upper grades show a significant relationship.

TABLE 2j

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SELF AND CLASS RATINGS OF
HOW WELL SUBJECT IS KNOWN AND
SELF-DISCLOSURE TO FRIENDS

Grade	df	Self-ratings and disclosure		Class ratings and disclosure	
7	37	-.473	.01	-.143	ns
8	39	-.548	.01	-.191	ns
9	38	-.177	ns	-.517	.01
11	32	-.814	.001	-.592	.01
Total	104	-.318	.001	-.194	ns

Hypothesis 2, that interpersonal knowledge ratings made by an individual or by his class are not affected by the sex of the subject, is not rejected by any of the four ratings. Tables 2k through 2f, below, present the summaries of the analyses of variance for these ratings and show a non-significant F ratio for effects of sex.

TABLE 24

ANOVA SUMMARY OF KNOWLEDGE SCALE: SUBJECT'S
RATINGS OF HOW WELL HE IS KNOWN BY HIS CLASS

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	α
Sex	1	.2003	.2003	ns	.93
Grade	2	1.0671	.5335	3.36	.021
S x G	2	4.4687	2.2343	4.76	.01
Within cells	96	10.7335	.1118		

TABLE 25

ANOVA SUMMARY OF KNOWLEDGE SCALE: SUBJECT'S
RATINGS OF HOW WELL HE KNOWS HIS CLASS

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	α
Sex	1	.0080	.0080	2.15	ns
Grade	2	7.8210	3.9105	3.73	.021
S x G	2	8.9666	4.4833	5.63	.001
Within cells	96	19.4793	.2018		

TABLE 26

ANOVA SUMMARY OF KNOWLEDGE SCALE: CLASSMATES' RATINGS
OF HOW WELL SUBJECT IS KNOWN BY HIS CLASS

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	α
Sex	1	.0010	.0010	ns	.93
Grade	2	6.0386	3.0193	20.49	.001
S x G	2	.7123	.3561	2.25	.03
Within cells	96	10.8229	.1127		

TABLE 27

SCORE SUMMARY OF KNOWLEDGE SCALE: CLASSMATES' RATINGS
OF HOW WELL SUBJECT KNOWS HIS CLASS

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F	nc
Sex Grade 3 x 6	5 5 5	.0000 6.0894 .7932	.0000 1.2179 .1656	nan 17.17 2.30	ns .001 .13
Within cells	94	13.2108	.1405		

Examination 3, that interpersonal knowledge ratings made by an individual or by his class are not affected by the age of the subject, is rejected for all four ratings. Tables 24 through 27, presented above, indicate highly significant F ratios for grade (age) effects. Tables 28 through 30 in appendix 4 show the means and differences by grade for subject's rating of how well he is known by his class, and the subject's rating of how well he knows his class, with the class rating of how well the subject is known by his class. The means and variances for the class rating of how well the subject knows his class are so close to the latter that no separate table was necessary, and the various t tests can be considered to be of the same significance in both cases. Figures 3 and 4 also present data in regard to changes by grade in knowledge ratings.

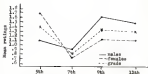


Fig. 3. --Mean score distribution as a function of grade and sex for subject's rating of how well he is known by his class and his classmates' ratings of how well subject knows his class.

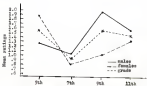


Fig. 6. --Mean score distribution as a function of grade and sex for subject's rating of how well he knows his class and his classmates' rating of how well he is known by his class.

These tables and figures indicate that the pattern for all four ratings are similar and that all ratings show a significant drop in the 7th grade which is re-sampled in the 9th. Except for this one change, there are no significant differences between the ratings at various grade levels. There is a strong possibility that the significant differences found in the 7th grade are not due to simple age factors but are a sampling artifact. This is discussed further in section IV.

Hypothesis 10, that interpersonal knowledge ratings made by an individual or by his class are not affected by the interaction of the sex and the age of the subject, is rejected only for the subject's ratings of how well he knows and is known by his class. Tables 31 through 33 in appendix B and Fig. 3 above present the relevant data for subject's rating of how well he is known by his class in a sex by grade comparison. The sexes differ significantly only in the 7th grade, when females give themselves significantly higher ratings than do males. Males, as shown by Table 32 and Fig. 3, show an increase in ratings at grade 7 which is continued in grade 11. Females, as shown in Table 33 and Fig. 3, show a significant drop in the 7th grade and no significant change thereafter.

Tables 34 through 36 in appendix B, and Fig. 6 above present the grade by sex changes in interpersonal knowledge ratings for subject's rating of how well he

know his class. Table 34 indicates that females give themselves significantly higher ratings than males do in the 8th grade, and that males give significantly higher ratings in the 9th grade. The male and female patterns of change are similar to that in the previous scales, as shown in Tables 35, 36, and Fig. 6.

Hypothesis 11-a predicts that there is a positive relationship between sociometric choice ratings given by subjects to persons of the same or opposite sex and ratings received from those persons in return. This hypothesis is supported in only two of the sixteen possible sex and grade social rating combinations, as shown in Table 37, below. There is a significant positive correlation between how 7th grade females rate other females and how they, in turn, are rated by those females. This same social relationship holds for 11th grade males rating other males. All other correlations are non-significant. The correlation between all ratings given by males and all ratings received by males in return is .067, that for all ratings given by females and all ratings received by females is .011, and the correlation for all subjects combined is .026. None of these approaches significance, and the conclusion is that there is essentially no relationship between sociometric choice ratings given by an individual and ratings received from others by that individual.

TABLE 17

COMPARISON BETWEEN JOINTNESS(1) GROUP SURVEY Q100 AND SURVEY Q1
 A. PERCENT OF YES OF SURVEY Q100 AND SURVEY Q100

Grade		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10	
Factor 1	Factor 2	df	r	n	df	r	n	df	r	n	df	r	n	df	r	n	df
Relates	Relates	79	.809	88	103	.178	88	78	.006	88	78	.006	88	78	.006	88	78
Relates	Doesn't	80	.080	88	109	-.049	88	97	.008	88	97	.008	88	97	.008	88	97
Doesn't	Relates	115	.058	88	101	.173	88	113	.108	88	113	.108	88	113	.108	88	113
Doesn't	Doesn't	95	.189	88	91	-.204	88	79	.009	88	79	.009	88	79	.009	88	79

Hypothesis 11-3 states that overall sociometric choice scores given or received by an individual are not affected by the sex of the subject. This hypothesis is not rejected for either rating. Tables 38 and 39, below, indicate that the F ratios for sex effects are non-significant in both cases.

TABLE 38

ANOVA SUMMARY FOR SOCIOMETRIC CHOICES GIVEN

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	α
Sex	1	2.088	2.088	non	.98
Choice	2	161.314	80.657	16.12	.001
2×2	2	24.907	12.453	4.10	.01
Within cells	96	140.139	1.460		

TABLE 39

ANOVA SUMMARY FOR SOCIOMETRIC CHOICES RECEIVED

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	α
Sex	1	.000	.000	non	.98
Choice	2	166.765	83.382	7.95	.001
2×2	2	19.336	9.668	non	.98
Within cells	96	161.478	1.682		

Hypothesis 12, that overall sociometric choice scores given or received by an individual are not affected by the age of the subject, is rejected for both ratings.

Tables 38 and 39, above, show F ratios for grade effects which are significant beyond the .001 level of confidence. Table 40 in appendix B, and Fig. 7, below, present the means and differences by grade for sociometric choice scores given and received. The means are necessarily the same because they are derived from the same scores, but variances, while similar, do differ. The t ratios in Table 40 were computed from the error variances for sociometric choice received, the larger of the two, and all differences shown as significant will also be significant at or beyond the indicated levels in regard to sociometric choice given. The data show the same general pattern as for Interpersonal knowledge, with the only significant difference being at grade 7.

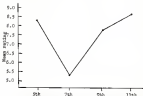


Fig. 7. --Mean score distribution as a function of grade for sociometric choice scores given and received by subjects.

Synthesis 11, that asymmetric choice scores given or received by an individual are not affected by the interaction of the sex and age of the subject, is rejected for asymmetric choice given but not for asymmetric choice received. Tables 41 through 43 in Appendix B, and Fig. 8 below present the means and differences for this interaction. Table 41 indicates that females give higher ratings than males in the 9th grade, while males give higher ratings in the 7th grade. The male pattern, as indicated by Table 42, shows a significant increase in ratings in the 9th grade. Females, as shown by Table 43, show a significant decrease in the 7th grade, with a gradual increase from there to grade 11.

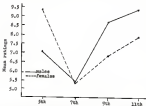


Fig. 8. --Mean score distribution as a function of grade and sex for asymmetric choice scores given by subjects.

Brookins and King find that there is a positive relationship between self-rated disclosure or interpersonal knowledge and sociometric choice scores given or received, as generally expected in regard to sociometric choice given but not for sociometric choice received. Table 44 indicates that self-disclosure correlates significantly with choice scores given for all targets except same sex friend. This latter target, however, is the only one which correlates significantly with sociometric choice received. The same pattern holds for subjects' ratings of how well they know and are known by their classmates. Both correlate with sociometric choice given at a highly significant level, but do not correlate significantly with sociometric choice received.

TABLE 44

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SOCIOMETRIC CHOICE SCORES GIVEN AND RECEIVED AND VARIOUS SELF-DISCLOSURE FACTORS.

Variables	S-C given		S-C received	
	r	α	r	α
Disclosure to S S Parent	.310	.001	.100	.85
Disclosure to O S Parent	.198	.01	.284	.35
Disclosure to S S Friend	.144	.85	.305	.31
Disclosure to O S Friend	.304	.01	.159	.85
Subj. rating, S knows class	.487	.000	.097	.85
Subj. rating, S is known	.394	.002	.143	.85
Class ^a rating, S knows class	.148	.85	.075	.008
Class ^a rating, S is known	.098	.85	.012	.001

Hypothesis 11-1 predicts that there is a positive relationship between other-rated disclosure or interpersonal knowledge and sociometric choice scores given or received. The hypothesis is supported for sociometric choice received but not for sociometric choice given. Table 14, above, indicates that, in this case, class ratings of how well a particular subject knows and is known by the class correlate significantly with sociometric choice received from the class, but not with sociometric choice scores given by that subject.

**IT
DEAD-ENDS**

IV. CONCLUSION

In general, the hypotheses advanced in the first chapter of this dissertation were supported by the data. Some of the more important implications of the findings will be discussed in this chapter, along with some suggestions for further research in this area.

The first hypothesis of this study dealt with the similarity of the two samples tested, and the overall conclusion is that they differ primarily as a function of a difference in instructions. This is important not only in terms of whether or not the samples confirm or contradict each other in testing the hypotheses of this study, but also in terms of increasing the generalization of the results. In this light, it should be pointed out that sample B, which had no restrictions on the choice of a best male and female friend, should present results more similar to previous studies in regard to disclosure patterns to friends than should sample A. This appears to be the case in that sample B shows a larger preference pattern in the upper grades which is more similar to that of college populations than does sample A. In actuality, the reasons for this are nearly impossible to assess in this instance because of other differences in the design of the questionnaire and instru-

sions used in the previous study. What does seem apparent is that while there are quantitative differences between the two samples in disclosure to friends, overall the patterns are much alike and are generally in keeping with what would be expected from a reading of the literature on child and adolescent behavior.

For the most part, the other results obtained from this self-disclosure study are also in keeping with those previously reported in the literature. Most researchers have found that females disclose more than males, that mothers receive more disclosure from their children than do fathers, and that disclosure input is related to disclosure output. There has also been some evidence that self-disclosure is a generalized phenomenon in that high disclosers tend to disclose a great deal to a wide variety of targets and low disclosers tend to disclose little to any target. All of these findings receive support in the present study. One of the studies mentioned in the review of the literature which appears to have particular bearing on the results from the self-disclosure questionnaire is discussed below.

Moore and Updegraff's (1964) study which was previously cited, found that in a sample of pre-school children there was a strong tendency for both sexes to give positive sociometric ratings to the same sex and negative ratings to the opposite sex. Hypothesis 3 of the present study finds the same sort of tendency among adolescents

in regard to disclosure patterns, is that same-sex targets were most preferred to those of the opposite sex. This tendency was so strong, in fact, that it was able to overcome the significant tendency for subjects to disclose more to mother than to father.

Lack of time and space precluded a sex by target analysis of sociometric choices and interpersonal knowledge scores, so no conclusions can be drawn regarding these measures. In view of the results obtained for self-disclosure, a more extensive analysis seems warranted at some future date.

One major hypothesis which failed to find strong support was that there would be a general increase in self-disclosure with increasing age. The one relationship which moved in the predicted direction was that of disclosure to friends in sample B, the unrestricted sample. The overall lack of support for the hypothesis seems to be a function of two separate factors. First of all, the general trend is present of a decrease in disclosure to parents as age increases, even though this did not reach significance because of the large within-group differences. Secondly, although sample A showed the hypothesized increase in regard to disclosure to friends, the restriction of the choices of best male and female friend to classmates appears to have reduced disclosure in the upper grades enough to prevent a significant difference.

These two trends also lend support to the validity

of the self-disclosure questionnaire is that they reflect the overall pattern of interpersonal behavior among adolescents as described throughout the literature. At the same time that disclosure to parents is in a decline as the adolescent becomes more emancipated from home, disclosure to his friends is increasing. As shown in Fig. 2 in the results chapter, this increase becomes most evident between the 8th and 10th grades. This is about the time that most teenagers begin to date regularly, and an increase in disclosure to opposite sex friends in particular would be hypothesized. This was not tested in the present report, but the information could be extracted from the data already collected and would appear to be of value.

The second major purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between self-disclosure and socio-scientific choice. A prime factor in investigating this relationship is the ability of the subjects involved to see themselves as others see them. Phillips' (1963) study appears to have a great deal of bearing on the interpretation of the results in this area. Phillips, in comparing people in two elementary school grades on their ability to see themselves as others see them, found that this ability was partly a function of age. The 6th grade subjects were more able to predict their own future performance on a psychomotor task and were more accurate in appraising themselves similarly to the way their classmates and teachers appraised them than were the 3rd grade

students.

In hypotheses 7-8, this study looked at the degree of correlation, or agreement, between two measures of self-disclosure. The general conclusion to be reached from the data is that agreement is good when comparing two ratings based on self-evaluations (three out of four correlations were significant) but only fair, and dependent on age, when comparing self and other-ratings. In this latter comparison sixth and seventh graders were able to rate themselves as their classmates rated them thus were the younger fifth and seventh graders.

In examining the results of the data concerning liking and disclosing, a situation similar to that above is present. Liking and disclosing are correlated only within rating modes, which is in keeping with the general lack of correlation between how a person rates himself or others on these variables, and how they rate him in return. Nevertheless, the results do support the hypotheses that liking and disclosing are correlated. In this study, subjects who see themselves as more disclosing to and more disclosed to by others assign them others higher sociometric status, and subjects seen by others as more disclosing and more disclosed to receive higher sociometric status from those others. The relationship fails only in that a subject's self-estimate of his disclosing behavior is not likely to be closely related to others' estimates of this behavior.

Two other possible explanations for the lack of agreement between self and other-rated disclosure lie in the nature of the instruments used to measure these variables. Although much is not the case in regard to the interpersonal knowledge scale, the self-disclosure questionnaire used in this study tends to measure cynical rather than average disclosure. In the choice of the target persons we find those people to whom the subject is most likely to disclose at a high level - mother, father, best male friend, best female friend. On the other hand, the class ratings of how much the subject has disclosed himself is an average rating, based on the judgments of those who may have little to do with the subject as well as those with whom he habitually associates.

Another possibility lies in the fact that, even in the upper grades, disclosure to parents still accounts for a major portion of the subject's total disclosure score. This factor is entirely missing in the ratings the subject receives from his classmates, and would tend to reduce the correlation between self and other-ratings.

There is, however, one self-rated disclosure score which is a good predictor of sociometric status assigned by others. Self-disclosure to one's best friend of the same sex, as indicated by Table 44 in the results section, is significantly correlated with sociometric status received. When these two factors were used to compute a regression line for predicting sociometric status, a 4

ratio of 3.15 ($p < .001$) for the significance of the covariance was obtained. No other self-rating was able to predict sociometric status at a significant level.

In view of the fact that one is much more likely to influence a friend's opinion by disclosing directly to him rather than to one's parents, and in view of the fact that disclosure to friends is more frequent between members of the same sex, it seems logical that disclosure to a same-sex friend would be the best predictor of sociometric status.

The investigation of the effects of sex and age on sociometric choice and on the interpersonal knowledge scale scores was not a primary point in the investigation. Nevertheless, information on the effects of both of these variables are necessary in assessing the overall results. The predicted results were that neither sex, age, nor the interaction between these two would be significant in affecting scores on the two scales. This is equivalent to predicting that variance within subjects would account for most of the differences between scores.

This prediction held true for the effects of sex in both cases, but not for age or the interaction. To the extent that these two factors play a significant part in determining scores on the two scales, the interpretation of the interaction between self-disclosure and sociometric choice is made more difficult and more tenuous. A closer look at the conditions of the experiment and the results

leads to the possibility that these factors may not be as significant as they seem from the statistical analysis.

In example 4, from which all of the data in interpersonal knowledge and sociometric choice comes, the 7th grade subjects are atypical in that they had less interpersonal contact with each other prior to testing than did any of the other groups. This class was divided into groups of 10 students, with 5 students rotating every two weeks. In this way, all students eventually got to know each other, but had less contact with any specific group than did the subjects in the other grades. Thus, the 7th graders were less acquainted with each other than the remaining groups, and if frequency of contact is a factor in interpersonal knowledge and sociometric choice, there should be some differences.

This is very much the case. In these areas the 7th grade subjects show linear scores in all instances. In fact, this group is the only one which differs significantly from the others on either questionnaire when sex is removed as a factor. Unfortunately, while this demonstrates the instrument's sensitivity to interpersonal contact differences, it also clouds the other results considerably and makes it more difficult to interpret the relationships between the three questionnaires. There is a strong possibility that there are no significant differences between the grades tested on either interpersonal knowledge or sociometric choice, although it is less

likely that the observed significant grade by sex interactions are artifacts.

Another interesting phenomenon worth mentioning is the striking similarity between the curves plotted from interpersonal knowledge data and the one plotted from the data on sociometric choice. This can be seen readily by examining Figures 3, 6, and 7 in the section on results. In addition, Table 4, in that section shows significant correlations between various combinations of knowledge and sociometric choice scores. The similarity extends even to the grade by sex patterns, and suggests that these two scales are measuring much the same feature. This similarity between the two scales also gives support to the hypothesis that self-disclosure and sociometric choice are positively correlated.

Another interesting pattern which appears, and which poses somewhat of a problem in interpretation, is that on both the interpersonal knowledge and sociometric choice scales females show a decrease in scores with increasing age while males show an increase. An explanation seems more difficult in view of the fact that a difference in maturational speed would not account for the S-shape of the relationship between the two curves. This S-shape is even more pronounced if the possible contamination of the graph by the atypical 7th grade sample is taken into consideration, and these values are replaced by an average of the scores obtained from the 5th and 6th grades. Fig. 7

presents the results of such an operation on the data for asimetric choice scores received. Similar results are obtained for Interpersonal knowledge data.

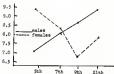


Fig. 3 asimetric choice scores received by males and females, using an averaged score for grade 7.

Several questions not previously discussed have been raised by the results of this study, and they need to be followed up. First of all, a replication of the testing done with sample A would be helpful in order to clear up the extent of the effect of the atypical 7th grade sample. Secondly, given that a change in instructions which limits the choice of best male and female friend affects the amount of disclosure to these targets, what is the actual nature and extent of this difference? This could be explored by giving the same sample of subjects both of these target choices. Other questions include the target-sex preference of subjects in the Interpersonal knowledge and

sociometric choice scales, and a more precise test of whether the liking-disclosure relationship works both ways.

The present modification of the self-disclosure scale appears to be useful, but it should be tested against the form with a more simplified rating scale to determine whether the expanded scale is actually more discriminating. The interpersonal knowledge and sociometric choice scales also appear to be potentially useful, but these in particular need further testing.

As a final point, the study of self-disclosure behavior in adolescent and preadolescent groups appears to be a fruitful one and technically feasible as well. Further refinement of the present procedures or of others exist, and/or the development of new techniques and instruments should result in a great deal of useful information for personality theory and applied psychology.

T

CONTACT

V. SUMMARY

The purpose of this research was to investigate self-disclosure behavior from a developmental point of view and to test its relationship with sociometric choice status in the late childhood and adolescent years. An attempt was made to clarify the nature and importance of some of the factors which affect disclosing behavior at various age levels and to test the hypothesis that self-disclosure is an aid in fostering good interpersonal relationships. Sociometric choice status can be seen as one indicator of good interpersonal relations, and it should therefore be positively correlated with self-disclosure.

One hundred and one children in grades 5, 7, 9, and 11 were administered a form of Jourard's self-disclosure questionnaire modified by the writer to be suitable for the subjects used, an interpersonal knowledge rating questionnaire, and a sociometric choice questionnaire. A second sample of 149 subjects in grades 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12 were given the self-disclosure questionnaire alone. The results are summarized as follows:

The samples appeared to be generally similar in overall self-disclosure patterns. However, a change in instructions for the second sample, increasing the range of choice

of preferred targets among peers, resulted in a significant increase in self-disclosure to these targets.

Strong support was found for the hypothesis that mothers would be favored over fathers as a disclosure target, but that there would be no significant differences between rear targets. In both samples there was significantly more disclosure to targets of the same sex as the discloser than to targets of the opposite sex, whether the targets were parents or friends. There was also a generally significant positive correlation between the amount of disclosure to any one target and disclosure to other targets.

Support was found in one of the samples for the hypothesis that females would be higher disclosers than males and that self-disclosure to father would decrease faster than disclosure to mother as the subjects grew older. Only tentative support was given to the hypothesis that there would be an increase in overall disclosure with increasing age, and that families would show increasingly greater disclosure than males.

Several studies have found that there is a positive relationship between disclosure level and disclosure output, and the present research strongly supports this. However, there was little support for the hypothesis that there would be a positive correlation between self-rated disclosure and disclosure as rated by others.

Within rating scales, the data demonstrated the predicted relationship between self-disclosure and sociometric

choice status. That is, there were generally significant positive correlations between self-rated disclosure or inter-arcenal knowledge and sociometric choice ratings given to others by subjects, and between other-rated disclosure or inter-arcenal knowledge and sociometric choice status given to subjects by these others. However, self-rated disclosure to best same-sex friend was a good predictor of sociometric choice scores received from others.

Secondary hypotheses dealing with factors affecting inter-arcenal knowledge and sociometric choice ratings were also tested. The two scales appeared to be very similar and apparently measure such the same factors. Both showed no differences attributable to sex alone, but did show significant age and sex by age interaction effects. In both cases, the 7th grade subjects contributed the major part of the difference, and possible reasons for this are discussed. Another common finding was that, with increasing age, females gave lower ratings and males gave higher ratings. No reasons for this were apparent.

Several of the results indicate good validity for the three instruments used in that they were consistent with previous research and/or generally accepted facts about adolescent behavior.

APPENDIX 1
QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

WHO KNOWS YOU ?

Read the following Introduction and Instructions to yourself as they are read aloud:

Introduction

People are different in how much they let other people know about themselves. We want to find out just what people DO tell, and what they prefer not to tell about their likes, dislikes, habits, and so forth.

Naturally, the things that are true about your personality, your feelings, your problems, hopes, and wishes will change as you get on with living. Therefore, the ideas that other people have about you will get out of date from time to time. What was true about you last week, or last year, may no longer be true. When you see people after a long time and you want them to know you as you are now, you tell them about yourself so that they will have a more up-to-date picture of you. If you don't want them to know, you don't tell them, even if they ask you personal questions.

You will think of some things about yourself as more personal and private than others; people are very

different in what they think is all right and good to let others know about, and what they think is nobody's business but their own. They are quite different also in when they choose to discuss their ideas with and to whom they prefer not to talk about these things.

All of the information which you put down on the questionnaire you are about to fill out will be secret. Your name will not be used in any report and no teacher or other person will see this information or use it in any way to grade you. These questionnaires are not testing there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. The important thing is that the answers you give are your own, as honest as you can, and truthful as you can.

Please turn the page.

Instructions

In the questionnaire on the following pages is a list of subjects that are concerned with various things in your life. They mention such areas as your friends, likes, dislikes, hobbies, and so forth. Look at the area is below:

	Mother	Father	Best Male Friend	Best Female Friend
1. The place you would most like to visit in the U. S. A.				

The subject is "The place you would most like to visit in the United States." After the subject are four columns, with the description of a person at the top of each one. These persons are your mother, your father, your best male friend, and your best female friend. You have a pretty good idea of how much you have let each of these people know about yourself in the past, and how up-to-date their knowledge about you is at present.

What we want you to do is to show in the columns how much you have let each of these four people know this information about you. On the back of this questionnaire booklet is a card titled **SCORING SCALE FOR WHO KNOWS YOU**. Tear this loose now. Look at the scoring scale and read the statements written after each number as I read them aloud.

To fill in the questionnaire, first decide how much you have let your MOTHER know about the subject of where you would most like to visit and put the number that most closely indicates this in the column under the heading MOTHER. Do this now.

If you decided, for example, that you have told your mother quite a bit about your ideas on this subject, but not everything, then you would place a 3 in the space. If you have told her only a very little, then a 1 would be correct, etc. Follow the same procedure for your FATHER, BEST MALE FRIEND, and BEST FEMALE FRIEND. If one of your parents is not living, or not living in the home with you, just leave that column blank. Fill in the other columns now.

Now please turn the page to the beginning of the questionnaire. Print your name, age, grade, and sex in the proper spaces at the top. Next look at the columns marked BEST MALE FRIEND and BEST FEMALE FRIEND. You will notice that there are spaces above the columns. Please think right now about who these two persons are and print their first names and the first letters of their last names in the proper spaces. These are the persons you should think of when filling out the questionnaire.

In filling out this questionnaire, use the same procedure as you did with the example. We only wish to know how much and to whom you have told these things, so

do not put down any answers about your thoughts on these subjects. When you finish one subject, go on to the next until you have completed all the items. There is no time limit, but work as quickly as you can. Are there any questions?

Begin now.

Self-Disclosure Questionnaire Items

1. What you dislike about your overall appearance.
2. The things about your appearance that you like most, or are proudest of.
3. Your chief health concerns, worry, or problem at the present time, if any.
4. Your favorite recreation hobbies or interests at present.
5. Your food likes and dislikes.
6. Your religious activities whether or not you go to church, which one, how often.
7. Your personal religious views.
8. Your favorite reading materials - kinds of magazines, books, or papers you usually read.
9. What really bothers you at present about your closest friend of the opposite sex.
10. What you most like to do when you are alone.
11. What you know about sex, and your experiences in this area.
12. Things about your own personality that worry or bother you.

13. The main worries and difficulties you have with your studies.

14. Your usual or favorite ways of having fun with others.

15. The names of the people who have most influenced you in your life.

16. The happiest times you have had - the high spots in your life.

17. What you believe are the right ideas for people to have about sex, and the right way to behave.

18. The kinds of music you enjoy listening to most.

19. The subjects you do not like at school.

20. The sports you like to watch most, and your favorite teams.

21. The kind of behavior in others that most bothers you, or makes you sad.

22. The things about your father that you have most disliked.

23. The things about your mother that you have most disliked.

24. What you dream about most - at night and in daydreams.

25. The feelings you have the most trouble controlling at present - for example, worry, sadness, anger, jealousy.

26. The biggest disappointments that you have had in your life.

27. Your political views and beliefs - people you would like to vote for.

28. What you think ignores or hurts you most in trying to do a better job in your work and studies.

29. Your views on the segregation of whites and Negroes.

30. Your thoughts and feelings about religious groups other than your own.

31. The people you admire most in the public eye, as far as people these in politics, arts, literature, sports.

32. The things you can do well, as in arts and crafts, mechanics, carpentry, musical instruments, dancing.

33. The names of the persons of the opposite sex you have liked very much or been in love with.

34. Your money situation: allowances, savings, money from jobs, what you own.

35. The places you have traveled in your life: cities, states, countries.

36. Your sleep patterns: when you usually go to bed, whether or not you have trouble sleeping, what you do when you can't sleep, when you usually awaken.

37. Your favorite television programs, and your grieces about TV.

38. What you want to be and do when you are grown.

39. The groups, clubs, or organizations you have been a member of.

40. Your likes and dislikes in drinks, such as milk, coffee, cake.

SCORING SCALE FOR WHO KNOWS YOU

0 - This person DOESN'T KNOW ME in this area right now, because I haven't told him or her or let them know in other ways.

1 - This person KNOWS ONLY A SMALL AMOUNT about me in this area right now, because I have let him know only a little.

2 - This person HAS A GENERAL IDEA about me in this area right now, but his idea of me is not complete or up-to-date.

3 - This person HAS A FAIRLY GOOD PICTURE of me in this area right now, as I have told him a great deal of up-to-date information.

4 - This person FULLY KNOWS ME as I see me in this area, because I have talked about this subject to him fully in the recent past, and things have not changed.

5 - I have lied or mis-represented myself about this to this person, or I would not tell this to this person even if he asked me.

WHOM DO YOU LIKE?

INSTRUCTIONS

On the following page, you will find a list of all your classmates, along with seven spaces after each name. These seven spaces have short labels at the top of the page which stand for different areas in which you are to rate these people. These areas are:

1. LEADER OF THE CROWD - How does this person rank as a member of the leading crowd, the best or most popular group?
2. WANT TO BE LIKE - How does this person rank as someone you would want to be like?
3. CHOOSE AS A FRIEND - How does this person rank as someone you would choose as a close friend or pal?
4. CHOOSE AS A LEADER - How does this person rank as someone you would choose as a leader, such as class president or student council representative?
5. SHARE SECRET WITH - How does this person rank as someone you would be willing to share a secret with?
6. KNOW ABOUT YOU - How does this person rank as someone who knows things about you?
7. YOU KNOW ABOUT - How does this person rank as someone whom you know things about?

Now look at the back of your questionnaire booklet and tear off the card titled "Giving Data for Whom Do You Like". Look at the scale and read the statements written after each number.

Next, look at the example given below:

1. John Doe	LEAD- ING	WANT TO BE LIKE	CHOOSE AS A FRIEND	CHOOSE AS A LEADER	SEEM INTEREST WITH	KNOW ABOUT THE	YOU KNOW ABOUT
	4	3	3	3	3	3	3

The voter felt that John Doe ranked very high as a member of the leading crowd, so he gave him a 4 in that column. He felt John was only average as a person he would choose to be like, so he gave him a 3 in this column. The voter filled in the other columns in the same way.

To complete your questionnaire, follow the same procedure. For each person on the list, decide how he or she ranks in each of the areas and then give him or her the scores from the scoring scale which most closely resemble this.

You need not vote yourself on this form, as later the spaces after your own name blank. Remember, we want your own opinions and feelings as to how you feel these people rate, not how you think others might vote them.

Now, please turn the page to the beginning of the questionnaire. Print your name, sex, and school in the proper spaces at the top. Begin at the first name and complete all of the items. There is no time limit, but work as quickly as you can. Are there any questions?

Begin now.

SCORING SCALE FOR WHEN DO YOU LIVE

- 0 - This person ranks VERY LOW in this area.
- 1 - This person ranks BELOW AVERAGE in this area.
- 2 - This person ranks JUST ABOUT AVERAGE in this area.
- 3 - This person ranks ABOVE AVERAGE in this area.
- 4 - This person ranks VERY HIGH in this area.

APPENDIX B
SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

TABLE 7

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES IN SELF-DISCLOSURE AS A
FUNCTION OF SEX: SAMPLE 2

Disclosure category	Mean for males	Mean for females	Differ- ence	t	sig.
Parents	66.18	77.00	10.81	3.38	.001
Friends	74.80	92.87	18.07	3.86	.001

TABLE 8

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES IN SELF-DISCLOSURE TO PARENTS
AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE AND SEX: SAMPLE 2

Grade	Male mean	Female mean	Differ- ence	t	sig.
4	97.06	96.68	1.38	0.15	.88
6	99.09	92.16	7.93	0.34	.88
8	69.14	808.07	18.50	4.90	.001
10	100.97	101.96	0.99	0.04	.88
12	68.81	100.00	31.19	3.13	.01

TABLE 9

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES FOR FEMALES AS A FUNCTION OF
GRADE FOR SELF-DISCLOSURE TO PARENTS: SAMPLE 2

Grade	Grade mean	t of differences between grades			
		4	6	10	12
4	96.68	0.07 .88	0.06 .88	0.31 .88	0.18 .88
6	92.16		1.00 .32	1.07 .30	0.80 .43
8	108.07			0.64 .52	0.83 .42
10	101.96				0.18 .88
12	100.00				

TABLE 10

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES FOR MALES AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE
FOR SELF-DISCLOSURE TO FATHERS: SAMPLE 2

Grade	Grade mean	% of difference between grades			
		5	8	10	12
4	77.54	0.30 SS	2.68 .01	0.87 SS	3.87 .00
5	79.09		2.81 .05	0.71 SS	3.99 .01
8	80.90			3.28 .002	0.39 SS
10	108.37				3.09 .002
12	68.85				

TABLE 11

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES IN SELF-DISCLOSURE TO FATHERS
AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE: SAMPLE 2

Grade	Grade mean	% of difference between grades			
		5	8	10	12
4	74.58	0.09 SS	0.10 SS	3.43 .00	3.38 .002
5	76.93		0.37 SS	3.63 .001	3.79 .001
8	72.89			3.69 .001	4.08 .002
10	77.14				0.13 SS
12	97.96				

TABLE 12

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES IN DISCLOSURE TO MOTHER AS
A FUNCTION OF GRADE: SAMPLE 2

Grade	Grade mean	% of difference between grades		
		7	9	11
5	501.89	6.46 .001	4.99 .001	4.41 .001
7	503.91		1.43 SS	0.89 SS
9	503.99			1.96 SS
11	99.70			

TABLE 18

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES IN DISCLOSURE TO FATHER AS
A FUNCTION OF GRADE: SAMPLE A

Grade	Target mean	% of difference between means		
		7	9	11
7	103.45	6.45 .001	4.95 .001	6.45 .001
9	89.71	*****	1.43 NS	2.30 NS
11	83.58		*****	1.94 NS
12	78.63			*****

TABLE 20

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES IN DISCLOSURE TO MATH FRIENDS
AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE: SAMPLE B

Grade	Target mean	% of difference between means			
		6	8	10	12
4	70.32	2.83 .03	6.06 NS	4.38 .001	3.38 .01
6	67.58	*****	2.37 .05	2.38 .03	1.93 NS
8	70.89		*****	4.87 .001	3.77 .01
10	68.25			*****	1.06 NS
12	61.38				*****

TABLE 21

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES IN DISCLOSURE TO FEMALE FRIENDS AS
A FUNCTION OF GRADE: SAMPLE B

Grade	Target mean	% of difference between means			
		6	8	10	12
4	78.84	1.57 NS	0.41 NS	2.66 .001	3.89 .001
6	69.73	*****	2.70 NS	4.87 .001	3.31 .001
8	76.39		*****	3.30 .01	4.34 .001
10	68.04			*****	1.31 NS
12	104.58				*****

TABLE 28

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE FOR
SUBJECT'S RATING OF HOW WELL HE KNOWS HIS CLASS

Grade	Grade mean	t of differences between grades		
		7	9	11
5	2.4073	3.26 .001	0.14 NS	0.62 NS
7	2.8203		3.41 .01	2.02 .01
9	1.3816			0.48 NS
11	1.3007			

TABLE 29

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE FOR
SUBJECT'S RATING OF HOW WELL HE KNOWS HIS CLASS

Grade	Grade mean	t of differences between grades		
		7	9	11
5	1.5789	3.77 .001	0.14 NS	0.87 NS
7	2.0163		3.38 .001	2.71 .01
9	1.5476			0.70 NS
11	1.4381			

TABLE 30

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE FOR
CLASSMATES' RATING OF HOW WELL SUBJECT IS KNOWN
BY HIS CLASS

Grade	Grade mean	t of differences between grades		
		7	9	11
5	1.8813	4.99 .001	0.15 NS	1.40 NS
7	2.0256		4.82 .001	3.81 .001
9	1.8493			1.87 NS
11	1.4363			

TABLE XI

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE AND SEX FOR SUBJECT'S RATING OF HOW WELL HE IS KNOWN AT HIS CLASS

Grade	Male mean	Female mean	Difference	t	df
7	1.5000	1.7143	0.2143	2.49	.01
8	.8571	.7857	0.0714	0.70	.50
9	1.5000	1.1667	0.3333	1.74	.09
11	1.4750	1.1818	0.2932	1.40	.18

TABLE XII

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES FOR MALES AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE FOR SUBJECT'S RATING OF HOW WELL HE IS KNOWN AT HIS CLASS

Grade	Grade mean	t of differences between grades		
		7	8	11
7	1.5000	2.89 .03	2.80 .01	1.64 .05
8	.8571	-----	2.03 .05	2.47 .02
9	1.5000		-----	0.36 .72
11	1.4750			-----

TABLE XIII

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES FOR FEMALES AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE FOR SUBJECT'S RATING OF HOW WELL HE IS KNOWN AT HIS CLASS

Grade	Grade mean	t of differences between grades		
		7	8	11
7	1.7143	4.28 .001	2.80 .01	2.31 .03
8	.7857	-----	1.78 .08	1.46 .15
9	1.1667		-----	0.13 .89
11	1.1818			-----

TABLE 14

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE AND SEX FOR SUBJECT'S RATING OF HOW WELL HE KNOWS HIS CLASS

Grade	Male mean	Female mean	Difference	t	α
5	1.2899	1.6660	0.3761	2.31	.01
7	1.0043	0.9166	0.0876	0.78	NS
9	1.0800	1.0764	0.0036	0.04	.001
11	1.3947	1.3603	0.0343	0.84	NS

TABLE 15

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES FOR MALES AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE FOR SUBJECT'S RATING OF HOW WELL HE KNOWS HIS CLASS

Grade	Grade mean	t of differences between grades		
		7	9	11
5	1.2899	1.10 NS	2.45 .01	2.58 NS
7	1.0043		2.00 .001	2.68 .01
9	1.0800			1.84 NS
11	1.3947			

TABLE 16

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES FOR FEMALES AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE FOR SUBJECT'S RATING OF HOW WELL HE KNOWS HIS CLASS

Grade	Grade mean	t of differences between grades		
		7	9	11
5	1.6660	4.80 .001	3.68 .01	3.06 .01
7	0.9166		1.18 NS	1.76 NS
9	1.0764			0.79 NS
11	1.3603			

TABLE 40

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE FOR
SOCIOECONOMIC CHOICE GIVEN AND RECEIVED

Grade	Grade mean	% of differences between grades		
		7	9	11
3	6.23	4.06	0.73	0.42
7	6.41	-----	3.38	4.38
9	7.40	-----	-----	0.85
11	8.55	-----	-----	-----

TABLE 41

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES AS A FUNCTION OF GRADE
AND SEX FOR SOCIOECONOMIC CHOICE GIVEN BY S.

Grade	Male mean	Female mean	Differ- ence	t	df
3	7.37	6.40	0.97	0.40	.69
7	6.41	7.37	-0.96	0.06	.98
9	6.73	6.86	-0.13	0.08	.93
11	7.31	7.86	-0.55	1.44	.80

TABLE 42

MEANS AND DIFFERENCES FOR MALES AS A FUNCTION
OF GRADE FOR SOCIOECONOMIC CHOICE GIVEN BY S.

Grade	Grade mean	% of differences between grades		
		7	9	11
3	7.37	1.33	1.70	2.36
7	6.41	-----	3.43	4.47
9	6.73	-----	-----	0.54
11	7.31	-----	-----	-----

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Wilburn Lerley Rivenbark III was born April 4, 1934, at Payson, Florida. In June of 1954 he was graduated from Gary Parsons High School in Payson, Georgia, and received his Bachelor of Arts degree from Emory University in June, 1958. Mr. Rivenbark taught in the public schools of Wilcox County, Florida, from 1958 until 1961. In July of that year he entered the Graduate School of the University of Florida in the College of Education, and received the degree of Master of Education from the Department of Personnel Services in August of 1962. In September, 1962, Mr. Rivenbark began working toward the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Psychology of the College of Arts and Sciences. While working toward this degree, he was employed as a graduate assistant in the Department of Psychology, and served a 12-month internship in Clinical Psychology at Milledgeville, Georgia at the Milledgeville State Hospital from 1963 to 1964. At present he is an Instructor of Psychology and staff psychologist at the Psychological Clinic of the University of Alabama.

Wilburn Rivenbark is married to the former Charlotte Leysin Bowles and is the father of three children. He is a member of Psi Chi and Kappa Psi Kappa.

This dissertation was prepared under the direction of the chairman of the candidate's supervisory committee and has been approved by all members of that committee. It was submitted to the Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences and to the Graduate Council, and was approved as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

December 17, 1966

Edith Jones
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